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EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN'S

J.JERUS ALBERT BRITTO
DR. B.SELVARAJ

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WORKING AND NON-WORKING WOMEN'S**

J.JERUS ALBERT BRITTO

GUEST LECTURER OF PSYCHOLOGY, GOVERNMENT ARTS COLLEGE, COIMBATORE,
TAMILNADU, INDIA

DR.B.SELVARAJ

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY, GOVERNMENT ARTS COLLEGE, COIMBATORE,
TAMILNADU, INDIA

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Author Helpline: +91 76988 26988

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At last, I would like to thank *RED'SHINE Publication, Pvt. Ltd.* for this keepsake, and my editorial team, technical team, designing team, promoting team, indexing team, authors and well wishers, who are promoting this journal. As well as I also thankful to *Indian Psychological Association* and President *Prof. Tarni Jee* for gives review team, I also thank you to all Indian Psychological Association members for support us. With these words, I conclude and promise that the standards policies will be maintained. We hope that the research featured here sets up many new milestones. I look forward to make this endeavour very meaningful.

Prof. Suresh Makvana, PhD¹

Editor in Chief,
HOD & Professor,
Dept. of Psychology,
Sardar Patel University,
Vallabh Vidyanagar,
Gujarat, India

¹ @ksmnortol@gmail.com

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ABSTRACT

Emotional competence is a very important ability of a person that helps him/her to succeed in every areas of life, in personal life, social relationships and in work also. The study is conducted to find out the Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among Working and Non-Working Women's. The sample consisted of 120 women's (60 working and 60 non-working women's) in an age group of 21 to 50. The instruments used where Emotional Competence Assessment Scale (Paiva and kumar, 2009) and Life Satisfaction (sheron and Jayan, 2009). Correlation and Anova are used to analyze data. It is found that working women is more emotionally competent and satisfied than non-working women.

Keywords: *Emotional Competence, Life Satisfaction, Working Woman, Non Working Woman.*

CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

Gender roles are the 'social definition' of women and men. Performance of these roles is guided by social norms, cultural values, class system, ages and historical perspectives of a society. Traditional gender roles which viewed male as breadwinner and female as homemaker, have changed over the time and there has been an increase in families headed by two working spouses (Perrone, Wright & Jackson, 2009) and support to this notion keeps increasing. In few of the societies due to men and women both being working, men have started contributing to household chores (Lewis, 2012) still in many societies, due to their culturally determined gender Ideologies (Reeves & Baden, 2000) the responsibility of child care and other family members, remains with women and they are faced with juggling the role of mother, partner and daughter as well as employee (Austen & Birch, 2000). Carrying out these roles may impact on women's quality of life which as defined by World Health Organization (1997) is: "Individuals perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns. It is a broad ranging concept affected in a complex way by the person's physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships, personal beliefs and their relationship to salient features of their environment". Quality of life is a state of happiness and satisfaction that a woman gets from the role that she plays. Its presence in a woman's life is unquestionably important. Thus this research was conceptualized considering the changes in role women in Pakistan have undergone in the recent past.

EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Emotional competency refers to one's ability to express or release inner feelings. It implies an ease around others and determines one's ability to effectively and successfully lead and express. Foundations of social and emotional competencies are often laid down early in life and become synonymous with our self-image and thus need focused attention over time to bring about change (Cherniss et al., 1998 & Hundekar et al., 1998). In modern society the status of women reveal that socio-cultural values hold considerable importance in their inner world. Along with socio-cultural changes women's participation and contribution to family life has also changed. The increase in the number of women at work may not only result in paucity of time of association with family members but also mark a change in the behavioral characteristics of women. Therefore the working and non-working women are needed to have more competence to carry out their job effectively as wives, daughters-in-law, as mothers in the family and good workers on the professional front to acquire a balance in the society. Emotional competency is the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. A sense of humor and the ability to both give and receive love are related to the sphere of emotions that are not provided as gifts but are to develop by the individuals as their own characteristic pattern of emotional reactivity (Sharma, 1997). An emotionally competent woman learns and applies skills to manage stress, improve self-esteem, confidence, personal change, decision making, leadership, assertion, comfort and commitment with life along with

health and well being (Nelson et al 2005). But unfortunately many women often experience negative emotions than positive ones. This is why the capacity to identify, understand and regulate both positive and negative emotions is indispensable for both the working and nonworking women, On the basis of this theoretical background the present study was undertaken to assess the emotional competence of the working and nonworking women.

Cognitive intelligence has received much attention as the single most important predictor of human performance (Wang, Young, Wilhite and Marczyk, 2011). However, the notion of emotional competence is gaining more attention and has been signified as a strong predictor of life success. Emotional competence can be understood as a group of generic skills that can be applied to many types of emotion-related skills (Garner, 2010). The ability to identify and discriminate emotions is especially important in youth development (Ciarrochi and Scott, 2006), and may be influenced by a person's initial orientation to his/her emotion-related problems. When an individual has an ineffective orientation, he/she will try to avoid thoughts and feelings related to the problem (Frauenknecht and Black, 1995). In such a case, he/she may fail to identify emotions and thus be less able to resolve emotional problems in constructive ways and less likely to accept his/her own feelings. Although references on developing competence related to emotions have been found in both UK and US government reports, the research field is not yet very developed (Qualter, Gardner and Whiteley, 2007). In the United Kingdom, emphasis on the "well-being" of children has been amplified. The government has set various goals for the educational settings to develop government-approved materials in developing emotional competence in Britain's youth. Government-determined national targets give rise to the need for young people to excel in social and emotional skills. In the United States, the government is equally focused on child well-being, with its "No Child Left Behind" legislation representing a commitment to ensure that all children are provided with effective learning and the opportunity to achieve through development of emotional skills. The debate in the literature over the terms, "Emotional Intelligence (EI)" or Emotional Competence remains active. Some researchers even deliberately avoid the use of the term, "emotional intelligence" as the distinction between EC and EI is still not clear (Ciarrochi and Scott, 2006). Lau (2006) articulated the difference between emotional intelligence and emotional competence in his review. The review places the emphasis of EI primarily on in-born ability while the proponents of EC emphasize the skills acquired through cultural and contextual interferences as one develops.

There has been an explosion of interest in the development of Social and Emotional Learning programs that seek to improve social health and mental health (Elias, Hunter, & Kress, 2001). There has also been a parallel interest in measuring individual differences in social and emotional competence (Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi, & Roberts, 2001). Such measurement is important in that it can help SEL researchers, to screen individuals and identify their strengths and weaknesses, to evaluate how individuals improve as a result of the SEL intervention, and to evaluate theory. Entire areas of research have sprouted up around particular measures of SEC, and these areas have functioned fairly independently of each other (Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi & Roberts, 2001). Such areas include alexithymia, emotional awareness, effective emotional control, and social problem solving skill. There is too little

research on how these measures interrelate, and whether such measures show incremental validity in predicting psychological health. It is possible that some or many of the variables correlate highly and/or are largely redundant in what they predict. Indeed, previous research suggests that such measures often do correlate, sometimes substantially (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001; Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi, & Roberts, 2001; Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998).

Emotions are traditionally thought of as psychological phenomena, with a strong biological basis. However, this can be misleading, as it neglects other, equally important aspects of emotion, namely the sociological and the spiritual. Emotions are: 'inter-subjective, products of the way systems of meaning are created and negotiated between people' (Parkinson, et.al, 2000). reinforce the need to adopt a broad perspective on understanding emotion when they argue that: Although emotions are often seen as intensely personal experiences, it also seems clear that most of them have an intimate relationship to other people's thoughts, words, and deeds and bring direct consequences for how social life proceeds. Further, our position within groups, subcultures, and the broader society helps to determine our emotional outlook on the world So, what constitutes an emotional challenge? I would identify the following as important examples of what can reasonably be interpreted as emotional challenges within the context of this broader, more holistic understanding of emotion; Anxiety: Although anxiety is not contagious in a literal sense, if we are not careful, being exposed to other people's anxieties can make us feel anxious too. In addition, if we approach the demands of social work in an unconfident way and without the appropriate supports in place, then we can find ourselves becoming anxious in our own right. Here a vicious circle can develop in which our own anxiety can make our client more anxious, while also making us more prone to being caught up in their anxiety. Being able to manage anxiety is therefore an important part of the social worker's repertoire. Depression: Depression can be similar, in the sense that the feelings of hopelessness and helplessness that characterizes depression can also drag us down. In social work we are likely to encounter depressed people fairly often even if we do not specialize in the mental health field. The challenge is to be able to work towards lifting the depressed person's spirits, rather than allowing their low spirits to have an adverse effect on us. Aggression: Sadly it is not uncommon for social workers to encounter verbal abuse and aggression. Such situations are likely to generate a fight or flight. The emotionally competent professional 70 response as a result of our bodies pumping adrenaline into our blood stream to prepare us for responding to the perceived threat. Thankfully, most aggression does not lead to actual violence, but our bodies do not know that and react accordingly. This can leave us feeling tense and agitated and therefore prone to reacting rashly and unwisely. We therefore have to make sure that we are able to train ourselves to respond to such situations as calmly as we can, difficult though that may be. Grief: it is a very powerful phenomenon that can generate very intense emotions and therefore significant challenges. Working with someone who is deep in the thrall of grief can: leave us feeling overwhelmed by the sheer intensity of the experience; and open up old wounds of our own. When working with grief we therefore need to make sure that we have access to appropriate support, what (Schneider, 2012) calls a 'healing community'. Emotional overload: At times we can face a situation where we are encountering different emotions from different directions all combining to produce a sense of emotional overload just too many emotional

plates to keep spinning. Once again, this is a time when support can be significant and we should not be afraid to ask for it. Mind games: Unfortunately, some clients and careers can play 'mind games' at times, by which I mean they can attempt to manipulate situations by playing on our heart strings - for example, trying to evoke pity; testing out our patience; and/or trying to get 'under our skin'. We therefore need to be aware of this possibility and make sure that we do not allow ourselves to be naive enough to be taken in by such games. 'Disguised compliance' (Reder et al., 1993) in a safeguarding context in children's services would be a further example. This is by no means an exhaustive list, but it should paint a sufficiently vivid picture to clarify that we need to take the emotional dimension of social work very seriously and be alert to the challenges involved and the potential dangers associated with it.

Theories of the emotional competence construct are crucial to understanding the application of skills of the individuals to the emotion-laden environments. There are two dimensions to infer the theories of emotional competence: the construct related to the socialization in respect of functionalist and developmental perspectives and the relationship between the construct and positive youth development. Lazarus (1991) and Campos et al.(1994) first proposed to view competences related to emotions from a functionalist point of view, and Saarni (2011) advanced this perspective from both the functionalist and developmental angles. In the functionalist perspective, the purpose of responding the stimulations of significant events or situations is stressed. The emotional competence can be developed in response to the dynamic interactions with significant others in the environment. An individual gains the interpretation of different emotions by the environmental and interpersonal stimuli as he or she moves through different developmental stages. In line with the functionalist perspective, Saarni (2007) discussed EC under the assumption that emotional development would be affected by the interactions among human beings and with the "ethno-psychological ecology", that is, the culture and social world. The skills in managing and regulating emotions can be acquired through learning and the interpretation of the emotion-eliciting environment with the emphasis on the interpersonal and social interactions within it. Although the competence can be gained developmentally, Saarni (2000) remarks that the acquisition of emotional competence would not be sequential. Each skill "reciprocally influences the differentiation of the other skills" in human development (saarni, 2007).The second dimension in understanding the theories of the construct is in relation to positive youth development. The perception of the problems generated in the emotion-laden contexts exerts influences on adolescents' emotional well-being. Concerning the well-being of the adolescents, emotional problems were found to be one of the key competence variables in a large cross-sectional study by Ciarrochi et al. (2003) Ineffective orientation to emotion-related problems is related to the difficulty in identifying the emotions. The individuals would then turn to destructive forms of emotional management, such as alcohol abuse (taylor, 2000). Ciarrochi& Scott (2006) administered a longitudinal study to investigate causal relations and the link between emotional competence and well-being. They found that people with effective problem orientation were less likely to experience depression, anxiety, and stress and were more likely to experience positive moods. Catalano et al. (2004) states that the enhancement of competence can help prevent other negative

outcomes and are indicative of positive youth development. The influence of the emotional competence in teaching and learning, Garner (2010) articulated the theories derived from psychology and education that affect the development of emotional competence in adolescents. The theories denote the relationship between the positive and stable emotions and academic performance in schools. As shown in past studies, Garner (2010) agreed that adolescents with better managed emotions would perform, both academically and socially, better in schools. Under the influence of globalization, adolescents are exposed to divergence of their own culture and other cultures. As school-aged children and adolescents are experiencing the trials of understanding emotions and emotional changes, the intention of increasing the awareness of the consideration of the cultural norms and the social partners, or “audience” as Saarni (1999) claims, becomes the priority. This priority with reference to the emotional display rule that would help adolescents to identify the socially and culturally unaccepted emotions. The knowledge of the cultural rule is transmitted by the emotion-eliciting situations in the adolescents’ culture. As the learning process of emotions is procedural, rehearsals of responding to the social contexts would contribute to one’s emotional competence.

Perspective taking is the skill of placing oneself in the place of another. It is a learned and a central part of empathy which is defined as “an effective response that stems from the apprehension or comprehension of another’s emotional state or condition, and that is identical or very similar to what the other person is feeling or would be expected to feel” (Eisenberg, 2000).

This ability to feel with others is a key component of emotional competence and is responsible for promoting social bonds among sales people (Saarni, 1999, Manstead & Edwards, 1992). Empathic salespeople are better listeners; they sense the feelings of others, accrue a basis for better influencing others, and tend to be better performers (Spiro & Weitz, 1989; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Managing self-presentations of emotion: a key skill in emotion management is a salesperson’s awareness that expression of his/her emotions affects others and may be strategically used to advantage (Saarni, 1999). The control of emotional expression can be likened to acting and has been called emotional dissemblance because it often involves dissociation between what is felt and what is communicated (Saarni, 1999). In organization research, the management of emotion has been termed emotional work (Hochschild, 1983; Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000) or impression management (Schlenker, 1980). Firms expect their salespeople to manage their emotional expressions with customers to advantage (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988; Morris & Feldman, 1996). For instance, salespersons are expected to act in conspicuously enthusiastic ways concerning their products even if they are ambivalent towards the products, company, or customers (Ash, 1984). Goleman (2001) notes in this regard that “the most effective people sense others’ reactions and fine-tune their own responses to move interaction”. Helping others accept one’s emotions: although an efficient means for managing self-presentation, emotional dissemblance takes resources (Feldman Barrett & Gross, 2001) and is therefore also labeled emotional labor (Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Whereas the display of genuine emotions requires little effort (Leary & Kowalski, 1990), considerable control is

needed to show emotions that differ from what one actually feels on an on-going basis. Morris and Feldman (1996,) note in this respect: "What makes regulation of emotional expression more difficult, and thus more labor intensive, are exactly those situations in which there are conflicts between genuinely felt emotions and organizationally desired emotions." In addition, particularly during prolonged and continuing customer interactions that are common in sales, great efforts are required of the salesperson to keep up one's self-presentation (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Therefore, it is sometimes better strategy to help others come to accept one's emotions instead of trying to change or dissemble one's own emotions in every instance. Effective sales people not only have the ability to dissemble their own emotions in a strategic way but also to "impose" their genuine emotions on others and make other people feel comfortable with them. In this regard, some psychologists speak about emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). In addition, as a consequence of expressing genuine emotions, the salesperson may influence attributions in customers to the effect that one is trustworthy and credible. These attributions have been found to be key in job performance in general (Goleman, 2001) and sales in particular (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Dissociation of guilt from strategic intent: Skills in the strategic management of emotions will come to naught if the communicator counterfactually anticipates self-guilt in their use. Parkinson (1991) studied how hairdressers interpret their interaction with customers. Hairdressers who felt pleased and proud about their ability to get customers to talk about themselves actually produced more satisfying interactions than hairdressers who did not. Indeed hairdressers who felt guilty about their ability to get customers to talk about themselves produced less satisfying interactions. In this respect, implicitly refer to guilt as a consequence of emotional regulation when they speak about a "person-role conflict, or a clash between personal values and role requirements," and Hochschild's (1983) concept of alienation of employees, as a consequence of emotional labor, may as well be interpreted as a way of coping with the continuous feelings of guilt that may result from emotional labor (. It is these negative feelings that pose a threat to emotional well-being indeed research has identified person-role conflict as a significant threat to employee well-being (Kahn et al., 1964 & Caplan et al., 1975). Similarly, King and Emmons (1990) argue that ambivalence of emotional expression is related to guilt, which by consuming people's resources may lead to job stress and burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). In short, salespeople, who are able to avoid guilt or feel less guilty about their emotional expression or who have been able to overcome their negative feelings, should feel more satisfied and relaxed and hence be more effective than salespeople who feel guilty when contemplating the use of emotions as a strategic tool. Feelings of authenticity: Erickson (1997) notes that we live in a "therapeutic emotional culture" where the process of emotional management is considered normal, an assumption that seems to be appropriate at least for the domain of sales and service professions, which are largely dominated by organizational feeling rules or communications tactics developed to facilitate persuasion (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Yet, such a view allows people to engage in emotional management in ways that are consistent with well-being and authenticity: "such a re-conceptualization makes it possible to view emotion management as a "normal" part of emotional experience. If so, then it is possible that managed emotion is potentially as real or authentic a part of emotional experience as spontaneously felt emotion" (Erickson, 1997).

This argument is supported by research on the effects of emotion management within work contexts (Adelmann, 1995; Bulan, Erickson, & Wharton, 1997; Leidner, 1993). As a consequence, sales persons that are able to assume such a perspective on emotion management might be able to combine strategic intent and use of displayed emotions with feelings of authenticity, even if acting strategically. Thus, Ashforth and Tomiuk (2000) note that about half of the persons in their study on service professions “simulated a wide range of emotions and yet continued to feel authentic in the role”.

That is, such sales people were able to adopt a personal of caring to perform their roles yet maintain their authentic selves. An ironic perspective: Hatch (1997) suggests that irony is achieved through the willingness to let go of conventional ways of viewing experience, and to try on new vocabularies and interpretive routines. Hatch (1997) suggests that ironists are people who “realize that anything can be made to look good or bad by being re-described, and their renunciation of the attempt to formulate criteria of choice puts them in the position which Sartre called “meta-stable”: never quite able to take themselves seriously because they are always aware that the terms in which they describe themselves are subject to change.” Similarly, irony serves as a mechanism that should allow salespeople to tolerate emotionally ambiguous situations and apply at times contradictory coping strategies (Hatch, 1997). Since irony can include contradictory emotional and mental states, it can also support other contradictory realities in sales, for instance acting simultaneously assertive and caring about the customer at the same time. In addition, some emotional coping strategies might provoke distress in salespeople, yet irony might help them to put into perspective these negative feelings (Vaillant, 1998), because similar to humor, it produces a dissociation from negative feelings (Keltner, 1995). As a consequence, laughter often arises in negative contexts and accompanies shifts toward more positive emotions (Bonanno, 2001). The ability to show a sense of humor and perspective about oneself is also part of Goleman’s (1998) concept of accurate self-assessment, which is closely linked to emotional intelligence. In short, an ironic perspective enables salespeople to handle better the contradictory demands of their profession. The role of personal norms: When dealing with one’s own emotions in the presence of customers, salespeople have to act in accordance with company norms, as well as their own personal norms. As Saarni (2000) summarizes it: “Mature emotional competence, as defined here, assumes that moral character and ethical values deeply influence one’s emotional responses in ways that promote personal integrity”. Sabini and Silver (1998) express similar ideas in their explication of the role of character and the following of moral norms in the self-regulation of emotions. Goleman (1998) states that the maintenance of standards of honesty and integrity is a determinant of trustworthiness and therefore a consequence of emotional intelligence, and Huy (1999) acknowledges the importance of “a sense of honesty, fairness, justice, and respect” for fostering change processes within companies. After all, emotional competence concerns finding a ‘balance’ between the self and the environment (Saarni, 1999). Salespeople are frequently tempted to engage in unethical behavior, either through self-deception or pressure brought to bear by performance expectations, the directives of supervisors, or demands by customers. Salespeople must reconcile such demands with their own codes of conduct if they are to sustain their integrity in the organization, yet perform up to expectations.

LIFE SATISFACTION

Satisfaction with life formerly focused on who is happy, whether the one who is a married, wealthy, spiritual individual or other. Temperament and personality appear as powerful factors, influencing people's well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). People who are not able to manage daily life by themselves may have a different view of life satisfaction than those with preserved self-care capacity. It may well be that the transition from being healthy and independent of help with activities of daily living to having to live with reduced self-care capacity alters the view of aspects contributing to life satisfaction. Knowledge is sparse about such factors in those with impaired self-care capacity, although this is important in health care and nursing, especially in Sweden, as in many other countries, there is an increasing older population and the average length of life also seems to be increasing (Walker & Maltby 1997). The proportion of the oldest old (80 years of age or above) will increase most in the years to come, which in turn will make demands on the health-care system. Life satisfaction is a global concept, referring to life as a whole rather than to specific aspects (Bowling 1997). The distinction between life satisfaction and quality of life is not clear and the concepts are sometimes used interchangeably (Mannel & Dupuis 1996). According to Mannel and Dupuis (1996), 'Life satisfaction and morale scales measure more enduring and stable cognitions, whereas happiness scales measure more temporary and transient affective states'. Further, they consider life satisfaction as a well-being measure of quality of life. They also suggest that research on life satisfaction has changed from focusing on pathology and coping to quality of life (Mannel & Dupuis, 1996), which confirms the idea of a strong relation between the concepts. The distinction between health related quality of life and life satisfaction is more obvious since health-related quality of life focuses on factors related to health only (Spiro & Bosse, 2000). Investigating lay definitions of general quality of life among people aged 65 and above, Farquhar (1995) identified several factors of importance for the older people: social contacts, health, activities, family, material circumstances and negatively losing family members - which may be relevant also when investigating life satisfaction among older people with reduced ability to perform daily activities.

Life satisfaction concept has been analyzed from different approaches: an affective or emotional approach considers this concept as a balance between positive and negative affect (Bradburn, 1969); the cognitive approach focus on the way an individual makes an appraisal about his general life or about some aspects of his life (Diener, 1984). During the last quarter of the 20th century substantial developments on the study of subjective well-being have turned up (Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith, 1999). First works from a sociological approach studied the influence of demographic variables on the prediction of life Satisfaction. Results showed that demographic variables explain a scarce percentage of the well-being variance (Wilson, 1967). Later on, from a psychological approach the relationship between internal characteristics of an individual as the main predictors for life satisfaction has been analysed (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Results showed that relationships between personality stable

Characteristics and life satisfaction are very relevant, moreover extraversion and neuroticism allowed predict life satisfaction level a person may have after fifteen years (Costa & McCrae, 1984). Life satisfaction is one factor in the more general construct of subjective wellbeing.

Life satisfaction is distinguished from affective appraisal in that it is more cognitively than emotionally driven. Life satisfaction can be assessed specific to a particular domain of life or globally. Satisfaction is a state of mind. It is an evaluative appraisal of something. The term refers to both contentment" and enjoyment". As such it covers cognitive-as well as affective-appraisals. Satisfaction can be both evanescent and stable through time. Life satisfaction is the degree to which a person positively evaluates the overall quality of his/her life as-a-whole. In other words, how much the person likes the life he/she leads? The concept of life-satisfaction denotes an overall evaluation of life. So the appraisal that life is exciting" does not necessarily mean that it is satisfying". Objective life circumstances or living conditions refer to the objective physical and social characteristics of an area of life whose effects on life satisfaction are cognitively mediated (Michalos, 1991). People will feel more satisfied when they perceive that their standards of fulfillment have been met and less satisfied when they have not been met (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999) Life satisfaction is often considered a desirable goal in and of itself stemming from the Aristotelian ethical model, eudemonism, (eudemonia, the Greek word for happiness) where correct actions lead to individual well-being with happiness representing the supreme good. Stress has been defined both as a non-specific adaptive response of the body to any demand and an internal and external stimulus. Stress can be said to involve three major conceptual domains: sources of stress, moderators of stress and the manifestations of stress.

Subjective well-being is a combination of positive affects (in the absence of negative affect) and the general life-satisfaction (i.e., subjective appreciation of life rewards). The term subjective well-being often is used as a synonym for happiness. Well-being involves our experience of pleasure and our appreciation of life's rewards (Diener, 1984). Life satisfaction is often considered a desirable goal, where correct actions lead individual to the well-being (Myers, 1992). There is ample evidence to support any of the premises that women who are employed are more satisfied than women who are homemakers (Ferree, 1976), or that employed women do not differ from homemakers in their level of satisfaction (Wright, 1978), or that homemakers are more satisfied than women who are employed (Hall, & Francine, 1973)

Kahneman (1999) argued that people in good circumstances may be objectively satisfied than people in bad circumstances. Laboratory studies also demonstrate that satisfied and dissatisfied react differently to the same stimuli. Rusting and Larsen (1997) demonstrated that extraverted individuals (those who appear to react more strongly to rewards) respond more intensely to positive than to negative pictures in laboratory situation. Women in India have come a long way after independence. From just a skilled homemaker, women today have acquired skills and capabilities of not just being a homemaker but being at par with their male counterparts. This is the new generation of women, who wants to pursue their dream career. But this life is not a bed of roses for all. While there is little consensus among psychologists about the exact definition of stress, it is agreed that stress results when demands placed on an organism cause unusual physical, psychological, or emotional responses. In humans, stress originates from a multitude of sources and causes a wide variety of responses, both positive and negative. Indian families are undergoing rapid changes due to the increased pace of

urbanization and modernization. Indian women belonging to all classes have entered into paid occupations. At the present time, Indian women's exposure to educational opportunities is substantially higher than it was some decades ago, especially in the urban setting. This has opened new vistas, increased awareness and raised aspirations of personal growth. This, along with economic pressure, has been instrumental in influencing women's decision to enter the work force. Most studies of employed married women in India have reported economic need as being the primary reason given for working. One of the most frequently faced psychological problems of recent years is stress and stress related illnesses. Due to an ever changing world, everybody is affected by stress regardless of age, gender, profession, social or economic status. Because of these rapid changes, people live most of their lives under stress. Therefore, the notion of stress has become a widely recognized problem in all aspects of life. People might be satisfied with one aspect of their life and not the other; it was pointed out that some people may be particularly unhappy with the particular domain of life and relatively satisfied with other domains. In addition individual might be satisfied with more domains of their lives and still be dissatisfied overall because of the impact of the particular domain (Diener, 1984). Objective life circumstances or living conditions refer to the objective physical and social characteristics of an area of life whose effects on life satisfaction are cognitively mediated (Michalos, 1991). People will feel more satisfied when they perceive that their standards of fulfillment have been met and less satisfied when they have not been met (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999).

In addition to variables mentioned above, there are other variables effect on life satisfaction both directly & indirectly .The quality of these variables affect the basis of their rate are as following: First, The deprivation feeling variable directly has decreasing effect on life satisfaction while this variable through security feeling variable and trust variable has decreasing effect on life satisfaction. It shows that as the rate of deprivation feeling increases in a society, security feeling and trust and finally satisfaction rate are expected to decrease. Second, Trust in efficiency of practitioners directly affects life satisfaction. However, this variable through feeling of security and social trust has increasing effect on life satisfaction. This effect shows that as the rate of trust in practitioners increases in a society, satisfaction rate is expected to increase. Third, The result of needs fulfillment in a direct way & through security feeling variable indicated that the rate of security & life satisfaction increases as the society highly satisfies the needs of all members.

Life satisfaction is often conceptualized as one of three key aspects of psychological well-being, the others being positive and negative affect (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Myers & Diener, 1995); these three are known collectively as hedonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Life satisfaction stands together with the affective elements to yield a relatively comprehensive picture of psychological well-being (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Diener et al., 1999; Herzog, Rodgers, & Woodworth, 1982). Life satisfaction is also highly heritable (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996; Tellegen et al., 1988). Yet, high heritability does not preclude aging-related change. Blood pressure and cholesterol levels have high heritability's, yet they can and do change with age. Nonetheless, genetic influences on life satisfaction may place limits on the extent of change. In addition, people seem to adapt to changes in life

circumstances that create temporary bumps up or down in life satisfaction by moving back toward an initial level or set point (the hedonic treadmill; Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1978; Headey & Wearing, 1989; Kahneman, 1999). Some observers have pointed out, however, that these adaptations are often incomplete; they move back in the direction of the initial level but not all the way (Easterlin, 2003). Over time, these can accumulate and change a person's typical level of life satisfaction. More important, Lucas et al. (2003) documented wide individual differences in the extent to which people adapt back to a baseline level of life satisfaction. Some people remain far from their initial level, even years after a life event. Such studies of change in life satisfaction following life events are essential for understanding the dynamics of well-being. Yet data are also needed that describe overall trajectories of life satisfaction over multiyear periods and to estimate the individual differences around such trend lines. The current study was of this type, and combined with studies that estimated the dynamic fluctuation in life satisfaction (Lucas et al., 2003) it can lead to a more complete portrait of change in well-being over both the short and long term.

NEEDS FOR THE STUDY

Emotional competence is an understanding of one's own and others emotions, the tendency to display emotion in a situationally and culturally appropriate manner. The world is getting modernized and the job opportunities for women are increasing in number, the working women are aware of right autonomy and decision making that strengthens their behavior and empower their satisfaction. Besides all this, doing job enables women to earn money and enjoy those luxuries of life. When they go outside for the job they have to face different kind of circumstances that make them stronger and enable them to manage their bad condition in a better way. In case of non-working women they are not getting much exposure to the outer world and they are not aware of changing patterns in their surroundings, that's why it is difficult to predict that working or non-working women is more competent and satisfied in their life. The present study was intended to study the emotional competence and life satisfaction among working and non-working women.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study title as "Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction between working and non-working women's".

DEFINITION OF KEYTERMS

Life Satisfaction

"Life satisfaction is how much a person likes the life he or she leads. Life satisfaction is an overall assessment of feeling and attitudes about one's life at a particular point in time ranging from negative to positive (Goelmans 1998)"

Emotional Competence

"Emotional competence is an understanding of one's own and others' emotions, and the ability to inhibit experienced and expressed emotion and emotionally derived behavior as needed to achieve goals in a socially acceptable manner Lewis (2012)"

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A collective body of works done by earlier scientists technically called the literature. Any scientific investigation starts with a review of literature. Working with the literature is an essential part of the research process which generates the idea, helps in developing significant questions and is regarded as instrumental in the processes of research design. The objectives of a review of literature are identifying variables relevant for research, avoidance of repetition, synthesis of prior works and determining the meaning and relationship among variable.

Emotional Competence

Devassy and raj (2014) conducted a study on Enhancing Social and Emotional Competence of Adolescents using Mindfulness-Based Rational Emotive Behavioral Counseling. Social and emotional competencies have been related to positive adaptive outcomes, psychological well-being, and school, home and peer adjustment among the adolescents. The paper presents the outcome of a quasi-experimental research on the impact of Mindfulness-Based Rational Emotive Behavioral Counseling on the social and emotional competence of adolescents. The intervention integrates the techniques of mindfulness and REBT to achieve emotional rational insight. The experimental design was one group pre-test, post-test design and the sample was a group of adolescents drawn from a Pre-University College in Bangalore. They were matched on two criteria: their socio-economic status and academic performance. The measures used in the study were Adolescent Social Competence Scale (ASCS) and Emotional Competence Scale (ECS).

Juyal (2013) conducted a study on Perceived parenting as related to emotional competence of visually and hearing impaired adolescents. The study was designed to investigate the difference between perceived parenting style of adolescents with visual and hearing impairment, as well as their emotional competence as an effect of perception of parenting style. The study found a relationship between the variable of perceived parenting and the emotional competence. The sample consisted of 140 participants, 70 visually and 70 hearing impaired adolescents, who were equally divided according to gender in each group. Results indicated that adolescents of both groups differed significantly on perceived parenting and the emotional competence variable. Visually impaired adolescents showed more positive perception and were more emotionally competent than the adolescents with hearing impairment. A positive significant relationship was shown by the visually impaired group between most of the modes of perceived parenting and aspects of emotional competence variable. On the whole, the perception of parenting of adolescents with hearing impairment was found to be significantly lower than the visually impaired adolescents. Similarly, emotional competence among the hearing impaired group as regards the relationship between the two variables was also found to be significantly lower as compared with the visually impaired group. Regarding gender, boys with visual impairment perceived more positive parenting and showed more emotional competence than the girls compared with hearing impaired group.

Tom (2012) conducted a study on Measurement of Teachers Social-Emotional Competence: Development of the Social-Emotional Competence Teacher Rating Scale. The study investigated the development of a scale measuring teacher SEC, the Social-Emotional Competence Teacher Rating Scale (SECTRS). The SECTRS was created and evaluated by an expert panel. Following the content validation process and follow-up revisions, the scale was administered to a sample of teachers ($N = 302$) and the scale's factor structure was explored, along with basic elements of the scale's reliability and validity. Finally, demographic characteristics were assessed to determine if relationships to SEC scores existed across these characteristics. Results of the factor analysis revealed a four-factor solution that explained 37.93% of the variance. The four factors identified measured aspects of teacher-student relationships, emotion regulation, social-awareness, and interpersonal-relationships. Internal consistency reliability estimates ranged from .69 to .88. Convergent validity,

Ferreira, Simoes, Matos, Ramiro, Diniz et al (2012) conducted a study on the role of social and emotional competence on risk behaviors in adolescence. The purpose of the study was to investigate the relation between social and emotional competence and substance use in adolescence, including tobacco, alcohol and illicit drugs. The sample included mean age 15 years old, in the 8th and 10th grades of the public school system from Portugal. Data were collected using the Health Behavior in School-aged Children survey. For the purpose of the study, the questionnaire included questions about social and emotional competence and risk behavior, specifically past 30-day tobacco use, drunkenness, and illicit drugs use. Results showed that adolescent social and emotional competence was negatively related to substance use. All social- emotional competence subscales were significantly associated with illicit drug use. In addition empathy, cooperation and communication, and goals and aspirations subscales, were significantly associated with tobacco use. Results demonstrate the potential importance of social and emotional competence in levels of substance use among Portuguese adolescents, and may be used to inform the development of Portuguese substance use prevention programs.

Hundekar, Patil and Itagi (2012) conducted a study on Emotional competence of working and non-working women. The study attempts to examine the emotional competence of working and non-working women from the urban and rural areas of Dharwad Taluk. A total of 120 working and non-working women were recruited for the study who were administered Emotional Competence Scale. Personal information schedule developed by the researcher was used to know the personal information regarding respondent's age, caste, education, family type, family composition and total monthly income. The results revealed that emotional competence was higher in both urban employed and non-employed women. Rural employed and non-employed women were incompetent with their emotions.

Lau and Wu (2012) conducted a study on Emotional Competence as a Positive Youth Development Construct: A Conceptual Review. The concept of emotional competence as a positive youth development construct is reviewed in the paper. Differences between emotional intelligence and emotional competence are discussed and an operational definition is adopted. Assessment methods of emotional competence with an emphasis on its quantitative nature are introduced. In the discussion of theories of emotional competence, the

functionalist and developmental perspectives and the relationships with positive youth development are highlighted. Possible antecedents, especially the influence of early child-caregiver, and expected outcomes of emotional competence are examined. Practical ways to promote emotional competence among adolescents, particularly the role of parents and teachers.

Mirabile (2010) conducted a study on Emotion Socialization, Emotional Competence, and Social Competence and Maladjustment in early childhood. In the study of preschool children and parents they examined relations between two facets of parents' emotion socialization, direct and indirect socialization; three facets of children's emotional competence: emotion expression, regulation, and understanding; and their relations with children's social and emotional adjustment. Few associations were observed between indicators of parents' emotion socialization and among indicators of children's emotional competence, suggesting that these constructs are better understood as multi-faceted, rather than unitary processes.

Hessler and Katz (2010) conducted a study on Brief report: associations between emotional competence and adolescent risky behavior. The study examines associations between emotional competence and adolescent risky behavior. Children from a longitudinal study participated at age 9 and 16. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with children about their emotional experiences and coded for areas of emotional competence. Associations were examined for the emotions of sadness and anger concurrently during adolescence and longitudinally from middle childhood to adolescence. Results suggested that children with poor emotional awareness and regulation had a higher likelihood of using hard drugs. Difficulty regulating emotions was associated with having more sexual partners, and both emotion regulation and expression difficulties were associated with greater behavioral adjustment problems. Results were consistent across the concurrent and longitudinal findings and pointed to anger as an important emotion. Findings suggest that children's emotional competence may serve as a useful point of intervention to decrease risky behavior in adolescence.

Garner and Estep (2010) conducted a study on Emotional Competence, Emotion Socialization, and Young Children's Peer-Related Social Competence. This study investigated linkages between aspects of emotional competence and preschoolers' social skills with peers. Whether parental emotion socialization practices contributed to the prediction of social skill once emotional competence was statistically controlled was also of interest. Eighty-one predominantly Caucasian preschoolers were videotaped as they participated in three same-sex triadic peer situations. Four peer variables were coded from the videotapes: social initiations, the frequency with which children were the targets of positive social bids, non-constructive anger-related reactions, and prosocial acts. The emotional competence measures included situation knowledge, children's explanations of emotions, and positivity of emotional expression during peer play, and emotional intensity. Maternal anger directed at the child was the measure of emotion socialization. Results revealed that the emotional competence variables were meaningfully related to the peer variables and that, for non-constructive anger reactions, maternal reports of anger explained unique variance. Results are discussed in terms of how emotional competence and emotion socialization contribute to peer

behavior and the importance of designing and implementing affective intervention programs for young children and their families.

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) conducted a study on *The Prosocial Classroom: Teacher Social and Emotional Competence in Relation to Student and Classroom Outcomes*. The authors propose a model of the prosocial classroom that highlights the importance of teachers' social and emotional competence (SEC) and well-being in the development and maintenance of supportive teacher-student relationships, effective classroom management, and successful social and emotional learning program implementation. This model proposes that these factors contribute to creating a classroom climate that is more conducive to learning and that promotes positive developmental outcomes among students. Furthermore, this article reviews current research suggesting a relationship between SEC and teacher burnout and reviews intervention efforts to support teachers' SEC through stress reduction and mindfulness programs. Finally, the authors propose a research agenda to address the potential efficacy of intervention strategies designed to promote teacher SEC and improved learning outcomes for students.

Domitrovich, Cortes and Greenberg (2007) conducted a study on *Improving Young Children's Social and Emotional Competence: A Randomized Trial of the Preschool "PATHS" Curriculum*. The study reports the results from a randomized clinical trial evaluating an adaptation of the Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies curriculum (PATHS) for preschool-age children in Head Start. PATH is a universal, teacher-taught social-emotional curriculum that is designed to improve children's social competence and reduce problem behavior. Twenty classrooms in two Pennsylvania communities participated in the study. Teachers in the 10 intervention classrooms implemented weekly lessons and extension activities across a 9-month period. Child assessments and teacher and parent reports of child behavior assessments were collected at the beginning and end of the school year. Analysis of covariance was used to control for baseline differences between the groups and pretest scores on each of the outcome measures. The results suggest that after exposure to PATHS, intervention children had higher emotion knowledge skills and were rated by parents and teachers as more socially competent compared to peers. Further, teachers rated intervention children as less socially withdrawn at the end of the school year compared to controls.

A study on *Attachment with parents and peers in late adolescence: Links with emotional competence and social behavior*. The goal of this study was to examine whether the links between attachment security and social behavior in late adolescence were mediated by emotional competence. One hundred and seventeen late adolescents completed self-report measures of parent and peer attachment, social behavior, and emotional competence. Attachment security with both parents and peers was significantly related to aspects of adolescent emotional and social competence. A path model revealed that parent and peer attachment had no direct links with social behavior. Instead, the links between parent and peer attachment and social behavior were indirect, mediated through aspects of emotional competence. These findings suggest that secure attachment relationships foster appropriate

social behavior by promoting high levels of emotional awareness, empathy, positive expressiveness, and low levels of negative dominant expressiveness (Laible, 2007).

Giardini & Frese (2006) conducted a study on reducing the negative effects of emotion work in service occupations: Emotional competence as a psychological resource. Although emotion work and emotional competence focus on similar processes, there has been a lack of integration between the two concepts. Emotion work is the regulatory effort to express organizationally desired emotions, whereas emotional competence encompasses skills that focus on how people deal with and regulate their own affect and that of others. The general hypothesis of the study was that emotional competence can be regarded as an important personal resource in emotion work because it moderates the relationships between work characteristics, emotional dissonance, and outcome variables. Eighty-four service employees completed a questionnaire on their working conditions and their well-being. In addition, peer ratings for emotional competence were completed. The study found that emotional competence moderated most of the proposed relationships between work characteristics and emotional dissonance, between emotional dissonance and outcome variables, and between work characteristics and outcome variables.

Ciarrochi, Wilson, Deane and Rickwood (2003) conducted a study on Do difficulties with emotions inhibit help-seeking in adolescence? The role of age and emotional competence in predicting help-seeking intentions. We examined whether adolescents who are poor at identifying, describing, and managing their emotions (emotional competence) have lower intentions to seek help for their personal-emotional problems and suicidal ideation, as observed in adult studies. We also examined whether age moderated the relationship between competence and help-seeking. Two hundred and seventeen adolescents completed measures of emotional competence, help-seeking, hopelessness, and social support. Results indicated that adolescents who were low in emotional competence had the lowest intentions to seek help from informal sources and from some formal sources, and the highest intentions to seek help from no-one.

There was one important age-related qualification: difficulty in identifying and describing emotions was associated with higher help-seeking intentions amongst young adolescents but lower intentions among older adolescents. Social support, hopelessness, and sex could not entirely explain these relationships. Thus, even those who had high quality social support had less intention to use it if they were low in emotional competence.

Friedman, Rapport, Lumley, Tzelepis, VanVoorhis, et al (2003) conducted a study on Aspects of social and emotional competence in adult attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. Social and emotional competence was evaluated using self-report and behavioral measures in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and controls. Adults with ADHD viewed themselves as less socially competent but more sensitive toward violations of social norms than controls. Films depicting emotional interactions were used to assess linguistic properties of free recall and perceived emotional intensity. Although adults with ADHD used more words to describe the scenes, they used fewer emotion-related words, despite rating the emotions depicted as more intense than did controls. In contrast, no group differences for

words depicting social or cognitive processes were observed. Overall, adults with ADHD appear more aware of their problems in social versus emotional skills. Findings may have implications for improving the psychosocial functioning of the adults.

Ciarrochi, Scott, Deane and Heaven (2003) conducted a study on Relations between social and emotional competence and mental health a construct validation study. Researchers working fairly independently of each other have created numerous measures of social and emotional competence (SEC). Study evaluated which, if any, SEC variables predicted unique variance in social and mental health after controlling for other SEC variables in the study and the impact of Stressful events. Three-hundred and thirty-one university students participated in an anonymous, cross-sectional study.

Ciarrochi and deane (2001) conducted a study on Emotional competence and willingness to seek help from professional and nonprofessional sources. We sought to determine the relationship between emotional competence and willingness to seek help for emotional problems and suicidal ideation. A survey of 300 university undergraduates assessed emotional competence hopelessness, willingness to seek help from health professionals and nonprofessionals and perceived usefulness of past help-seeking experience. Those who reported feeling less skilled at managing emotions were less willing to seek help from family and friends for both emotional problems and suicidal ideation and less willing to seek help from health professionals for suicidal ideation. These relationships held even after controlling for hopelessness, sex, and past help seeking experience. Meditational analysis suggested that people low in managing others' emotions were less willing to seek help from professionals because they had had poorer experiences with mental health professionals in the past. There was no significant relationship between emotion perception skill and willingness to seek help. People most likely to be in need of help (those poor at managing emotions) were the least willing to seek it, and if they did seek it, were the least likely to benefit from it.

Shields, Dickstein, Seifer, Guisti, Magee et al. (2001) conducted a study on Emotional Competence and Early School Adjustment A Study of Preschoolers at Risk. The study examined whether emotion regulation and emotion understanding made unique contributions towards at-risk preschoolers' classroom adaptation. To address this question, we assessed children's emotion regulation and their understanding of emotions in both self (self-awareness, emotion coping) and in others (emotion recognition, affective perspective taking, situation knowledge). Participants were 49 children (22 boys and 27 girls) who attended a Head Start program for low-income children. Seventy percent of this sample was Caucasian, with the remainder being of Latino, African American or biracial ethnicity. Emotion regulation at the start of the school year was associated with school adjustment at year's end, whereas early emotional liability/negativity predicted poorer outcomes. Children who made a smooth adjustment to preschool also were better able to take another person's affective perspective and to identify situations that would provoke different emotional responses. Emotion regulation and understanding made unique contributions towards school adjustment, even when controlling for potential confounds, including behavior problems and verbal abilities. Teachers appeared to influence children's emotional competence by serving an important regulatory function, especially for older preschoolers at-risk.

A study on Emotional Competence and Leadership Excellence at Johnson & Johnson. A study was conducted on three hundred and fifty-eight Managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group globally to assess if there are specific leadership competencies that distinguish high performers from average performers. Participants were randomly selected, then coded for performance rating, potential code, gender, functional group and regional area. More than fourteen hundred employees took part in a one hundred and eighty three question multi-rater survey that measured a variety of competencies associated with leadership performance including those commonly referred to as Emotional Intelligence. Results showed that the highest performing managers have significantly more emotional competence than other managers, (Cavallo 2001).

Garner, Jones, Gaddy and Rennie (1997) conducted a study on Low-Income Mothers Conversations about Emotions and Their Children's Emotional Competence. The study examined the linkage between low-income mothers' conversations about emotions and their children's understanding of emotion. Forty-five low-income preschoolers and their mothers were videotaped while viewing a wordless picture book designed to elicit talk about emotions. Three maternal and child emotional language behaviors were coded from the videotapes: (a) unelaborated comments about emotions; (b) explanations about the causes and consequences of emotions; and (c) empathy-related statements. The children's questions about emotions were also coded. In a separate interview, the preschoolers were administered tasks that assessed emotional expression knowledge, emotional situation knowledge, and emotional role-taking. The results revealed that emotional situation knowledge was positively predicted by mothers' empathy- related statements. Mothers' explanations about the causes and consequences of emotions were uniquely related to emotional role-taking ability. There were very few correlations between the mothers' and children's talk about emotions. Results are discussed in terms of the functional significance of mothers' emotional language for young children's emotional competence.

Denham (1997) conducted a study on When I have a Bad Dream, Mommy Holds Me: Preschoolers Conceptions of Emotions, Parental Socialization, and Emotional Competence. Described preschoolers' conceptions of the consequences of their own emotions within the family demonstrated the linkage between this aspect of social cognition and emotional competence with peers, and examined contributions of parental emotion to both child variables. A total of 774- and 5-year-olds enacted dollhouse vignettes depicting consequences of their emotions. Parents completed questionnaires on negative emotion and sharing of positive affect, and teachers rated children's emotional competence with peers. Children attributed plausible parental reactions to their own emotions; affective sharing/distress relief conceptions of parents' reactions were most strongly associated with emotional competence in the preschool classroom.

Socialization of emotion indices exerted both direct and indirect influences on emotional competence, and conceptions of parents' positive reactions also exerted a direct effect, as expected.

Denham, Copeland, Strandberg, Auerbach and Blair (1997) conducted a study on Parental Contributions to Preschoolers' Emotional Competence: Direct and Indirect Effects. The study examines the contributions of (1) parental socialization of emotion and preschoolers' emotional interaction with parents to their emotional competence, and (2) parental socialization and child emotional competence to their general social competence. Both observational and self-report techniques were used to measure emotion socialization, emotional competence, and social competence of preschoolers (average age = 49.8 months) from 60 middle-socioeconomic-status families. Data were collected in both classroom and home settings. In general, the results suggest that parental modeling of expressive styles and emotional responsiveness to child emotions are important predictors of preschoolers' emotional competence and their overall social competence. Children whose parents were more affectively positive tended to display more positive emotion with peers, whereas children whose parents were more negative appeared less socially competent in the preschool. Parents who were better coaches of their children's emotions had children who understood emotions better. Age and sex moderated several of the study's key findings. The results are consistent with earlier research indicating that parental socialization of emotion impacts the child's emotional and social functioning both at home and in the preschool.

Emotional competence refers to one's ability to express or release one's inner feelings. It implies an ease around others and determines one's ability to effectively and successfully lead and express. The above mentioned studies are described the emotional competence is correlated with social competence, pro-social behavior, parenting style, emotional socialization, well-being, maladjustment in early childhood, school adjustment, social behavior, leadership excellence and mental health.

Life Satisfaction

Arshad, Gull, and Mahmood (2015) conducted a study on life satisfaction among working and non working women. The study was conducted to measure the life satisfaction among working and non working women. Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Ed Diener and colleagues consisting 5 items was administered to the sample of different organizations and living areas of Islamabad and Faisalabad. The sample was divided into two categories 50 working women and 50 non-working women, out of which 25 working and 25 non working from Faisalabad, 25 working and 25 non working from Islamabad were taken. T-test was computed for the statistical analysis of the data. All hypotheses were significant at $P < .05$ level. Findings indicate that there was significant difference between working and non-working women regarding their positive well being.

Shek and Li (2015) conducted a study on Perceived School Performance, Life Satisfaction, and Hopelessness A 4-Year Longitudinal Study of Adolescents in Hong Kong. The longitudinal study examined the perceived school performance, life satisfaction, and hopelessness of Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong. Over the period of the study, perceived school performance and life satisfaction decreased, whereas adolescent hopelessness increased. Consistent with our predictions, a positive relationship between perceived school performance and life satisfaction, a negative relationship between life satisfaction and

hopelessness, and a negative relationship between perceived school performance and hopelessness were found. Structural equation modeling further showed that life satisfaction functioned as a mediator in the relationship between perceived school performance and hopelessness. The findings underscore the role of perceived school performance in adolescent well-being and suggest that promoting life satisfaction is a possible way of reducing adolescent hopelessness.

Jang and yoon (2015) conducted a study on Academic Achievement and Life Satisfaction of Korean Rural Adolescents. The study focused on the academic achievement and life satisfaction of rural adolescents in Korea deprived of human and social resources compared with their urban peers. The paper examined relative influences of variables, self-efficacy of youth, family social capital, social relations, and cultural capital of adolescents residing in the rural community of different sizes. 2,409 ninth graders residing in rural areas of eight South Korean provinces were recruited for the self-administered questionnaire. The variables concerning academic achievement of rural youths were, in order of influence, family social capital, cultural capital, and self-efficacy, while the variables relevant to life satisfaction were, also in order of influence, social relationships, family social capital, and self-efficacy. The result showed not only difference between two groups of variables, but also relative weak influence of socioeconomic status.

Suldo, Savage and Mercer (2014) conducted a study on Increasing Middle School Students' Life Satisfaction: Efficacy of a Positive Psychology Group Intervention. The study identified middle school students who were less than delighted with their lives (reported life satisfaction scores between 1 and 6 on a 7-point scale), and attempted to improve these students' mental health via a 10-week group wellness-promotion intervention developed from prior applications of positive psychology research. Complete data at baseline, post-intervention, and 6-month follow-up was gathered from 55 sixth grade students who were randomly assigned to the intervention condition ($n = 28$) or wait-list control ($n = 27$). Repeated measures analyses of a propensity score matched sample of 40 participants indicated a significant group by time interaction for global life satisfaction from baseline to post-intervention. Specifically, life satisfaction of students in the intervention group increased significantly, while the control group declined during the same period. The intervention group's gains were maintained at follow-up, but were matched by similar gains for students in the control group. No effects of intervention group were identified in the indicators of affect or psychopathology. The improvements in life satisfaction evidenced by students in the intervention group during the first semester of middle school are important given the adjustment difficulties that often appear during this sensitive developmental period marked by biological and educational changes.

Liu, Shuzhuo and Feldman (2013) conducted a study on Gender in Marriage and Life Satisfaction under Gender Imbalance in China The Role of Intergenerational Support and SES. The study examined gender differences in the influence of marital status and marital quality on life satisfaction. The roles of intergenerational support and perceived socioeconomic status in the relationship between marriage and life satisfaction were also explored.

Jewell and Kambhampati (2012) conducted a study on The Role of Personality in Adult Life Satisfaction. The paper investigates the extent to which life satisfaction is influenced by personality utilizing longitudinal data collected by the BHPS. The test whether there is some happiness trait or propensity to be happy that influences the life satisfaction of adults by including a personality trait which avoids reverse causality and is clean of other environmental factors. To isolate an individual fixed effect on youth happiness after controlling for a wide variety of demographic and environmental factors. Happiness trait was included as an instrument for personality in an adult life satisfaction model. The results indicate that the happiness trait has a positive, highly significant effect on life satisfaction for both men and women. Also find that it has an effect that remains even after include the Big 5 personality variables indicating that there is some happiness trait above and beyond these 5 variables.

Chen and Davey (2008) conducted a study on Normative Life Satisfaction in Chinese Societies. Research over several decades about subjective life satisfaction has led to the conclusion that the majority of people seem to be satisfied with their lives when their social and physical needs are met. In empirical studies which have used self-report instruments, the trend is reflected in respondents' consistent preference for the positive end of scales. Study led to the suggestion that there is a normative range for life satisfaction, which should hold true for general population data and, therefore, serve as a reference point, or a gold standard, for comparison (Cummins Social Indicators Research, 1995, Social Indicators Research, 1998). Subsequent research has shown that Western and non-Western samples generally conform to the normative range, but more data are needed from Chinese societies. In an attempt to remedy the situation, the study investigates normative life satisfaction there. The study re-analyses published and unpublished data from various Chinese societies in order to confirm whether or not they lie within the normative range for non-Western countries. The results provide support for the relevance of Cummins's normative range in Chinese societies

Landa, zafra, antonana and Pulido (2006) conducted a study on the relationship between Perceived Emotional Intelligence and Life Satisfaction in university teachers. The study was to assess the nature of these relationships and to predict the factors implied on life satisfaction, positive and negative effect, work satisfaction and alexithymia measures were used. 52 university teachers completed the Spanish version of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale for emotional intelligence. Alexithymia was measured by the Spanish version of the TAS-20, and life satisfaction was measured by SWLS (Morales, 2001). Also, Work Satisfaction Scale was used. The results yield a strong correlation between life satisfaction and TMMS subscales (emotional Clarity and emotional Repair), TAS-20 subscales (difficulty to describe emotions and external oriented thinking), and Work Satisfaction Scale.

Lavallee , Hatch, Michalos and McKinley (2006) conducted a study on Development of the Contentment with Life Assessment Scale (CLAS): Using Daily Life Experiences to Verify Levels of Self-Reported Life Satisfaction. The study explored the hypothesis that the average life satisfaction of Anglo-Americans is better characterized as neutral than satisfied. In Study 1 developed the five-item Contentment with Life Assessment Scale (CLAS), which focuses on contentment, fulfillment and self-discrepancies. Normative data based on three general

population samples demonstrated that the CLAS produces a close to normal distribution of scores, has excellent reliability, and is sensitive to differences in life conditions (e.g., income, marital status). In two daily diary studies we tested whether global life satisfaction measures corresponded to people's daily subjective wellbeing. The CLAS was the best predictor among three self-report life satisfaction measures of daily escapist behaviors including television watching and alcohol consumption, and daily stress-related physical symptoms (Study 2). In Study 3, participants recorded their level of life satisfaction daily for two weeks. Average daily life satisfaction scores clustered close to the neutral rather than satisfied point of the measurement scale.

Lucas, Clark, Georgellis and Diener (2004) conducted a study on Unemployment Alters the Set Point for Life Satisfaction. According to set-point theories of subjective well-being, people react to events but then return to baseline levels of happiness and satisfaction over time. The study tested this idea by examining reaction and adaptation to unemployment in a 15-year longitudinal study of more than 24,000 individuals living in Germany. In accordance with set-point theories, individuals reacted strongly to unemployment and then shifted back toward their baseline levels of life satisfaction. However, on average, individuals did not completely return to their former levels of satisfaction, even after they became reemployed. Furthermore, contrary to expectations from adaptation theories, people who had experienced unemployment in the past did not react any less negatively to a new bout of unemployment than did people who had not been previously unemployed. The results suggest that although life satisfaction is moderately stable over time, life events can have a strong influence on long-term levels of subjective well-being.

Iecovich and Isralowitz (2004) conducted a study on Visual impairments, functional and health status, and life satisfaction among elderly Bedouins in Israel. Age-related vision impairment is a major cause of functional limitations. It often affects their social, emotional, mental and physical well-being as well as ability to everyday functioning. The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of visual impairment on daily functioning and subjective well-being of elderly Bedouins. The study cohort included 88 elderly Bedouins 60 years old and more, who participated in a day-care center program located in a Bedouin town in the southern region of Israel. The findings show that the majority of the respondents have visual problems in terms of close and distance sight. Visual impairment was found significantly correlated with perceived daily functioning and health status as well as sense of life satisfaction; those having visual problems reported more problems with performing activities of daily living, their health status is more deteriorated and their life satisfaction level is lower compared with those not having visual problems. A discussion of the findings is provided in terms of policy and services provision for the elderly.

Cheung and Leung (2004) conducted a study on Forming Life Satisfaction among Different Social Groups during the Modernization of China. Quality of life has become a notable concern in the modernization of China. However, there are no adequate data to chart the formation of quality of life, in terms of life satisfaction, and in relation to the societal conditions of modernization. Moreover, it is still a question concerning how life satisfaction forms among people of different social groups, differentiated by class, education, age, and

gender. To answer the questions, the study involved a random sample survey of 732 inhabitants in Beijing. Results indicate the contributions of income, age, perceived modern economic conditions in society, and satisfaction with societal economic conditions. In contrast, education and the ownership class appear to predict lower life satisfaction. Furthermore, there are significant variations in the effects of the factors in predicting the life satisfaction of people in different social groups.

Notably, perceived economic conditions appear to be less important to people of higher class positions.

Huebner, Drane and Valois (2000) conducted a study on Research on Assessment of Life Satisfaction of Children and Adolescents. Over the years, various psychologists have issued calls for greater attention to a science of positive psychology, which focuses on studying conditions that promote optimal human and societal development. Recent calls have furthered interest in studies of the nature and determinants of the good life. Such a science, along with the creation of prevention and intervention programs informed by the expanded scientific framework, is expected to improve the quality of life for all individuals, not just individuals who are at risk or who already demonstrate psychopathological conditions. To contrast with the previous emphasis on psychopathology, the development of a positive psychology requires constructs and measures that reflect the full range of human functioning, incorporating indicators of high levels of wellness as well as psychopathological functioning. This article discusses one such construct, life satisfaction, that has been studied extensively in adulthood (see Diener et al., 1999), but which has only recently gained attention with children and adolescents (see Bender, 1997; Huebner, 1997). The article reviews life satisfaction assessment research with children and adolescents, specifically with regard to construct validity.

Suh, Diener, Oishi, Triandis and Harry (1998) conducted a study on The shifting basis of life satisfaction judgments across cultures: Emotions versus norms. The relative importance of emotions versus normative beliefs for life satisfaction judgments was compared among individualist and collectivist nations in 2 large sets of international. Among nations, emotions and life satisfaction correlated significantly more strongly in more individualistic nations. At the individual level, emotions were far superior predictors of life satisfaction to norms (social approval of life satisfaction) in individualist cultures, whereas norms and emotions were equally strong predictors of life satisfaction in collectivist cultures.

Kossek, Ozeki and Cynthia (1998) conducted a study on Work-family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. the review examines the relationship among work-family (w-f) conflict, policies, and job and life satisfaction. The meta-analytic results show that regardless of the type of measure used (bidirectional w-f conflict, work to family, family to work), a consistent negative relationship exists among all forms of w-f conflict and job-life satisfaction. This relationship was slightly less strong for family to work conflict. Although confidence intervals overlap, the relationship between job-life satisfaction and w-f conflict may be stronger for women than men.

Cummins (1998) conducted a study on The Second Approximation to an International Standard for Life Satisfaction. The study presents a analysis based on data from countries representing all major geographic regions. While the major correlates of life satisfaction are found to be individualism and national wealth, the life satisfaction levels of some countries are distinctly anomalous in this regard. It is concluded that the narrow range of population data suggest that life satisfaction is held under homeostatic control. The anomalous levels of life satisfaction reported by some countries indicate caution in the interpretation of life satisfaction data as implying some desirable population state.

Life satisfaction is a multidimensional concept related to psychological and environmental life conditions. The term life satisfaction can be split into two words-life and satisfaction. the above mentioned studies are described the life satisfaction is correlated with perceived school performance, hopelessness, academic achievement, marital adjustment, personality trait, income, emotional intelligence, visual impairments, health status, work family conflict and policies.

CHAPTER-III

METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is a way to find out the result of a given problem on a specific matter or problem that is also referred as research problem. In Methodology, researcher uses different criteria of solving/searching the given research problem. Different sources use different type of methods for solving the problem. If we think about the word "Methodology", it is the way of searching or solving the problem. (Industrial Research Institute, 2010).

According to Goddard & Melville (2004), answering unanswered questions or exploring which currently not exist is a research. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English lays down the meaning of research as a careful investigation or inquiry especially through search for new facts in any branch of knowledge. Redmen & Mory (2009), define research as a systematized effort to gain new knowledge.

In Research Methodology, researcher always tries to search the given question systematically in our way and find out all the answers till conclusion by using different kind of methods. If researcher does not work systematically on the problem, there would be less possibility to find out the final result. For finding or exploring research questions, a researcher faces lot of problems that can be effectively resolved with using correct research methodology (Industrial Research Institute, 2010).

The chapter describes about objectives of the study, Hypothesis, Sample, tools used, procedure adopted for data collection and the statistical analysis of collected data.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To find out the level of Emotional Competence among working and non-working women's.
- To find out the level of Life Satisfaction among working and non-working women's.
- To find out the significant difference on Emotional Competence between working and non working women.
 - a) To find the significant difference on happiness among working and non-working women's
 - b) To find the significant difference on love among working and non-working women's
 - c) To find the significant difference on interest among working and nonworking women's
 - d) To find the significant difference on sympathy among working and non-working women's
 - e) To find the significant difference on fear among working and non-working women's
 - f) To find the significant difference on anger among working and nonworking women's

- g) To find the significant difference on sad among working and nonworking women's
- h) To find the significant difference on jealousy among working and nonworking women's
- To find out the significant difference on life satisfaction between working and non working women.
- To find out significant relationship of Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among working women.
- To find out the significant relationship of Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among non working women.

HYPOTHESES

Pursuant to the above objectives, the following hypothesis were proposed for the present investigation.

- 1) There will be difference on the level of Emotional Competence on working and non-working women's.
- 2) There will be difference on the level of Life Satisfaction on working and non-working women's.
- 3) There will be no significant difference on Emotional Competence between working and non working women.
 - There will be no significant difference on happiness among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on love among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on interest among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on sympathy among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on fear among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on anger among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on sad among working and nonworking women's
 - There will be no significant difference on jealousy among working and non working women's
- 4) There will be no significant difference on Life Satisfaction between working and non working women.
- 5) There will be significant relationship between Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among working women.
- 6) There will be significant relationship between Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among non working women.

SAMPLE

60 working women's and 60 non-working women's from Malappuram and Alapuzha district in Kerala, were considered as participants for the present study. Purposive sampling method is used for sample selection. The age range of participant is between 21 and 50 years.

Inclusion criteria

- The woman's who are working in schools, colleges and hospitals are included.
- The women's who are homemaker are included as non-working women's.
- The women's between the age range of 21 and 50 are included.

Exclusion criteria

- The woman's who working in other sectors are excluded.
- Other than women's all genders are excluded.
- The woman's who below 21 and above 50 are excluded.

TOOLS

- ***Personal data sheet***

The personal data sheet developed by the investigator was used to collect data regarding the socio-demographic characteristics of participants. The demographic details including name, age, place, educational qualification, occupation, job category, marital status.

In the present study, the investigator tries to study different variables like emotional competence and life satisfaction. The instruments used have been developed and standardized by experts in the field. The measures are:

1 - Emotional competence assessment scale (ECAS) (Paivaandkumar, 2009)

2 - Life satisfaction (sheron and Jayan, 2009)

1 - Emotional competence assessment scale

Emotional competence assessment scale (ECAS) developed by Paivaandkumar, in 2009. The scale measures the emotional competence of individuals in different sector. The inventory consist of 35 items measuring eight competencies, they are; happiness, love, interest, sympathy, fear, anger, sadness, and jealousy. The responses are recorded by putting a tick (✓) mark against the option which you think suits you the most. The response ranges from always to never.

Reliability & Validity

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a test measures, whatever it measures. The concept of reliability suggests both stability and consistency of measurement. The authors calculated the reliability analysis and it was found in Equal-length Spearman-Brown is 0.721.

Scoring

The emotional competence assessment scale consists of 4 statements and the responses are recorded as follows. A score of 3, 2, 1, 0 for responses “Always”, “Sometimes”, “Rarely”, and “Never”, respectively. The total score is found out by summing up the responses recorded for each of the statements.

2 - Life satisfaction scale (Sheron & Jayan 2009)

Life satisfaction scale consists of 20 items. The scale is developed at the department of psychology, university of Calicut. The response categories are not at all, sometimes, neutral, often, always. A numerical weightage of 1-5 is given to all statements. (Sheron&jayan, 2009).

Reliability and validity

Split half reliability coefficient was found to be 0.95. Test retest reliability coefficient found to be 0.90, significant at 0.01 level.

Content validity was found to be 0.41, significant at 0.01 level.

PROCEDURE

The samples were working and non working women's of age ranges from 23 to 40. Participants were selected through purposive sampling from different working areas like schools, government offices, banks and from residential areas. Request letters were given to the different workers and non workers, and confidentiality of data and instructions to fill the questionnaire were explained. Both the questions were pinned together. Each question has corresponding score given in the sheet and doubts were cleared.

Emotional competence assessment scale

There are some statements related to emotional competence of a person. Please indicate your responses to the statements with the number that most closely matches your point of view. You must have to put your response to every statement, do not omit.

Life satisfaction scale

Life satisfaction scale is the most commonly used tool to assess the life satisfaction with the respondent's life as a whole. Please indicate your responses to the statement with the number that most suits you.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical techniques selected were based on the objectives set forth and hypothesis formulated for the study. The statistical techniques used are below:

1. ANOVA

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a collection of statistical model and their associated

procedure (such as "variation" among and between groups) used to analyze the difference among group means. ANOVA was developed by statistician and evolutionary biologist Ronald Fisher.

2. Correlation

The correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. Usually the Karl Pearson's correlation is used. Values of the correlation coefficient are always between -1 and +1. A correlation coefficient of +1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in positive linear sense, a correlation coefficient of -1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a negative linear sense, and a correlation of 0 indicates that there no linear relationship between the two variables.

CHAPTER-VI

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study is aimed to determine the life satisfaction and emotional competence among working and non working women's. Firstly collected life satisfaction and emotional competence questionnaire from working and non working women's. Then scored and analyzed the data, correlation analysis is used to understand the relationship between the same variables and at last used Analysis of variance to find the difference among Emotional competence and life satisfaction.

Table 1 shows levels of emotional competence among working and non working women's.

LEVELS OF EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE	WORKING		NON WORKING	
	N	%	N	%
LOW LEVEL	0	0	0	0
AVERAGE LEVEL	32	53.33	59	98.33
HIGH LEVEL	28	46.66	1	1.66

Table 1 shows the Level of Emotional Competence among Working and Non Working Women. 53.33% of working women's and 98.33% of non working women's have the Average level of Emotional Competence. 46.66% of working women's and 1.66% of non working women's are high level of Emotional Competence. This is mainly because of the working women's educational level, academic levels, and Social interactional levels are high than non working women's.

Figure- 1 shows levels of Emotional Competence among working and non working women's.

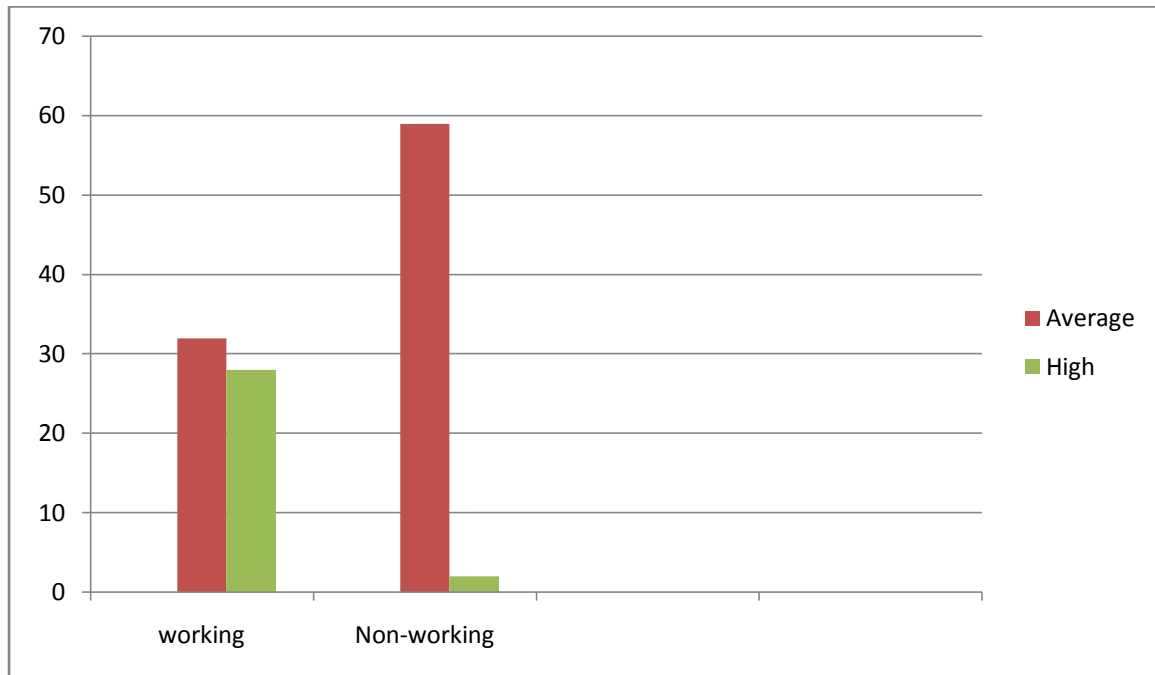


Table II shows the level of Life Satisfaction among working and non working women's.

LEVELS OF LIFE SATISFACTION	WORKING		NON WORKING	
	N	%	N	%
HIGH	60	100	56	93.33%
LOW	0	0	3	5%

Table II shows the Levels of Life Satisfaction among working and non working women's. The Working and Non Working Women's are having 100% and 93.33% of High Levels, and 5% non working women's obtained low level of life satisfaction. Here working are having high level of life satisfaction when comparing with non working women's because the working women are aware of right autonomy and decision making that strengthens their behavior and empower their satisfaction. Besides all this, doing job enables women to earn money and enjoy those luxuries of life. When they go outside for the job they have to face different kind of circumstances that make them stronger and enable them to manage their bad condition in a better way. In case of non-working women they are not getting much exposure to the outer world and they are not aware of changing patterns in their surroundings.

Figure-II shows the level of Life Satisfaction among working and non working women's.

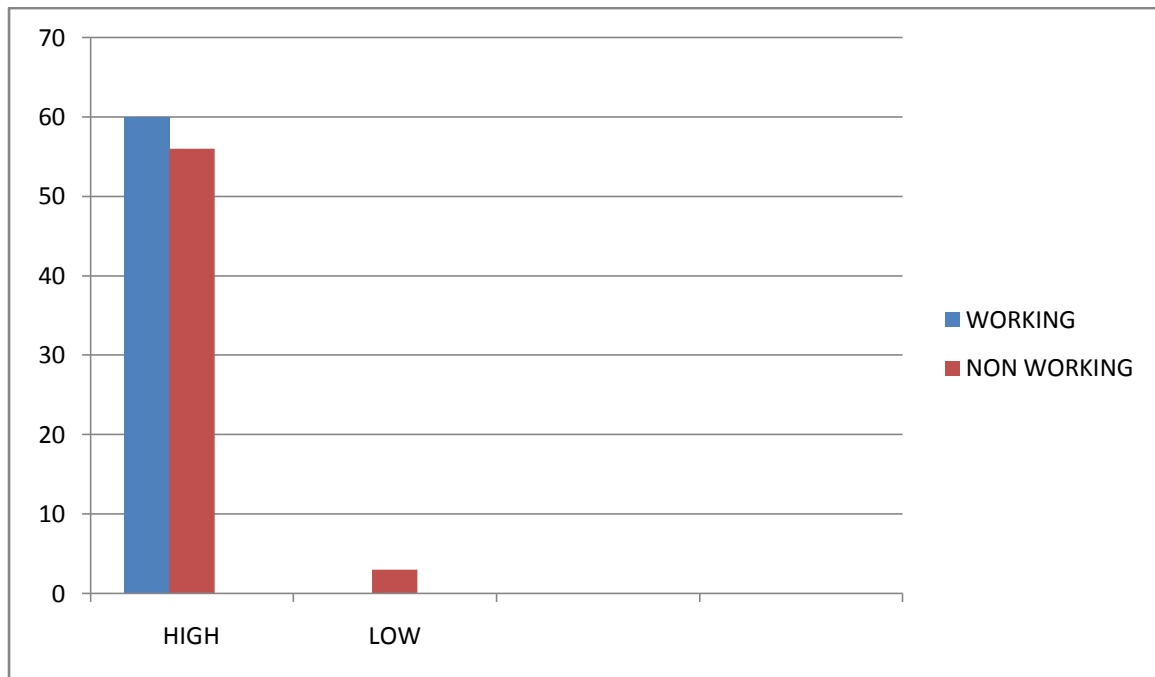


Table III shows the significant difference on emotional competence between working and non working women

Variables	Source	N	Mean	SD	F	p	Significance
Happiness	Working	60	9.17	2.218	9.156	0.02	Significant*
	Nonworking	60	8.02	1.935			
Love	working	60	10.03	2.329	45.769	0.03	Significant*
	nonworking	60	7.25	2.176			
Interest	working	60	8.85	2.483	1.275	1.00	Not Significant**
	nonworking	60	6.53	2.375			
Sympathy	working	60	9.65	2.208	61.528	0.03	Significant*
	nonworking	60	6.63	2.000			
Fear	working	60	8.80	2.576	22.997	0.04	Significant*
	nonworking	60	6.62	2.408			
Anger	working	60	10.03	2.724	13.727	0.04	Significant*
	nonworking	60	8.33	2.282			
Sad	working	60	9.55	3.050	0.06	0.07	Not significant**
	nonworking	60	8.40	1.993			
Jealousy	working	60	9.70	3.514	3.19	0.09	Not Significant**
	nonworking	60	8.53	2.607			

Table III Shows the significant difference on Emotional competence between working and non-working women's.

Here the table shows the mean, SD their 'p' and F value and significance of various dimensions of emotional competence among working and non-working women. The degree of freedom is 118 and their corresponding value from the table at 0.05 significance level is 3.92.

In the case of happiness, the mean and standard deviation obtained by working women's is 9.17 and 2.128 and in non-working women's is 8.02 and 1.935 their corresponding 'F' and 'p' value are 9.156 and 0.02. Here the obtained F value is greater than the critical value so we can reject the hypothesis that there is significant difference on happiness among working and non-working women's. The difference is mainly due to their job because the working women's are highly secured in life, economic level is also good, status, recognition from various level can increase their level of happiness.

The mean and SD for love in working women are 10.03 and 2.329 and in case of non-working women's have the mean and SD score as 7.25 and 2.176. The 'p' and 'F' Value obtained by working and non-working women is 0.03 and 45.769 which indicates the calculated value is higher than the table value which results in as hypothesis is rejected and thus there is significant differences on love among working and non-working women this is because, the working women should understand and love both the familial people and other level of surrounding people then only they can only achieve the target or will be satisfied in the job as well as in their life so there may be some differences in the level of love for both working and non-working women's.

In the case of interest, the mean and SD scored by working women's is 8.85 and 2.483 and in the case of non-working women's the mean score obtained is 6.53 and SD is 2.375. Both the working and non-working women's 'p' and F value is 1.15 and 1.275 which indicates obtained value is lesser than the table value which means hypothesis is accepted i.e., there is no significant difference on interest among the working and non-working women's because the working and non-working have same level of interest on their own work then only they can be able to lead a satisfied life.

Sympathy is the expression of understanding and caring for someone else suffering. Here the mean and SD score obtained by working women's is 9.65 and 2.208. In the case of non-working women's, the mean and SD score obtained are 6.63 and 2.00. Their F and 'p' value obtained are 61.528 and 0.03 which means the hypothesis is rejected i.e., there is significant difference on sympathy in both working and non-working women's. Normally the working should more interact socially, understand and care others which will be one of the important characteristics of working women's then only they can be dedicated both internally and externally in their job and in their life but in the case of non-working women's they will be showing sympathy mainly to familial relations only so there may be some difference on the level of sympathy in both working and non-working women's.

In the case of fear, working women's scored the mean and SD as 8.80 and 2.576 and for non-working women's they obtained the value as 6.62 and 2.408 as their mean and SD. The 'p' and F value obtained by both working and non-working women's are 0.04 and 22.997 which indicates hypothesis is rejected i.e., there is significant difference on the level of fear on both working and non-working women. The working women's are mainly fear about their health, family, and other psychological problems because of the tight schedule of their work, familial duties etc these are the main reason for the difference on the level of fear in working and non-working women's.

Anger is an emotional reaction to a real or perceived threat of some sort. Here the working women obtained the mean and SD as 10.03 and 2.724 and for non-working women's the mean and SD obtained are 8.33 and 2.282. Then the 'p' and 'F' Value obtained by working and non-working women is 0.04 and 13.727. Here the hypothesis is rejected i.e., there is significant difference on the level of anger in both working and non-working women's. This is mainly due to the tight work schedule, depression from both the family and work place so when the optimal level increased, there may be high chance to burst out in working women's than non-working women's.

In the case of sad, the working women's obtained the mean and SD as 9.55 and 3.05 and for non-working women's they scored 8.40 and 1.993 as their mean and SD value. The 'p' and 'F' value obtained by both working and non-working women are 0.07 and 0.06 which indicates the hypothesis is accepted i.e., there is no significant difference on the level of sad in both working and non-working women's because in case of working women they have their own events to become sorrow because of their work, family etc. and in the case of non-working women's the sadness is mainly due to low level of security, economic deficiency, status, recognition etc so both of them have somewhat the same level of sadness.

In the case of jealousy the working women's obtained the mean and SD score as 9.70 and 3.51 for non working women's the obtained the mean and SD score as 8.53 and 2.607. The 'p' and 'F' value obtained by both working and non-working women's are 0.09 and 3.19 which indicates the hypothesis is accepted i.e., there is no significant difference on the level of jealousy in both the working and non-working women's. In the case of working women's they will show jealousy mainly among subordinates in the field of promotion, status etc in the place of work and in the case of non-working women's they felt jealousy because of jobless, salary etc.

Table IV shows the significant difference on life satisfaction between working and non working women.

Working/Non working	N	Mean	SD	F	p	Sig
Working	60	72.25	72.25	1.14	1.00	Not Significant**
Non Working	60	70.82	69.82			
** Not Significant at 0.05 level						

Table IV shows the difference among the life satisfaction between working and non-working women's.

Life satisfaction is the way people show their emotions and feelings and also how they feel about their direction and options for future. It is a measure of well-being and may be assessed in terms of moods, satisfaction with relations with others and with achieved goals, ability to cope with daily life.

Here the table shows the mean, SD, 'P' value and significance of various dimensions of emotional competence among working and non-working women. The degrees of freedom are 118 and their corresponding value from table at 0.05 significance level is 3.92.

The both mean and SD obtained in working women's is 72.25 and in the case of non-working women's the mean and SD Score obtained is 62.85. The 'p' and 'F' value obtained are 1.00 and 1.14 which indicates table value is greater than the obtained value, Thus hypothesis is accepted i.e., there is no significant difference among working and non-working women's life satisfaction.

Here the working and non-working women's life satisfaction is not having much differences. It seems that, the working women's have positive attitude towards life and try to develop healthy pattern of adjustment and capacity to deal with different tough situation throughout life. The working women's are also aware of their right of autonomy and decision making that strengthen their behavior and empower that lead towards life satisfaction and also a satisfying career is an important component of life satisfaction. Doing something meaningful in a productive and meaningful way to contribute to ones feeling of life satisfaction.

Here the non-working women's are also satisfied with their life because their world is their family. They spend more time at home and devoted themselves for their life. The main aim was to help their children for better future and they find life satisfaction from their domestic responsibilities.

So in both working and non-working women's are not having much differences in life satisfaction because they both are finding their own way to satisfy in their life.

Table-V shows the Correlation between Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction Among Working Women's.

Correlation analysis shows the relationship between Emotional Competence and Life satisfaction among working women.

VARIABLES	MEAN	SD	r-Value
HAPPINESS	9.17	2.22	0.17
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
LOVE	10.03	2.32	0.25
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
INTREST	9.67	2.20	0.33
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
SYMPATHY	9.67	2.20	0.44
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
FEAR	8.9	2.56	-0.35
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
ANGER	10.03	2.72	-0.43
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
SAD	9.56	3.06	-0.51
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	
JELOUSY	9.8	3.51	-0.41
LIFE SATISFACTION	72.25	10.596	

Table V shows the correlation analysis between the dimensions of Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among Working Women.

The mean value and standard deviation of life satisfaction is 72.25 and 10.596.

In the case of emotional competence, the first dimension is happiness. The mean score and standard deviation (SD) of happiness is 9.17 and 2.22. The correlation value (r-value) between life satisfaction and happiness is 0.17 which indicates both are positively correlated which indicates hypothesis is accepted.

The second dimension of Emotional Competence is love, the mean score and SD obtained is 10.03 and 2.32. The r-value obtained between love and life satisfaction is 0.33 which results they are positively correlated hence hypothesis is accepted.

In the case of interest and sympathy, the mean score and SD obtained are 9.67 and 2.20. The r-value obtained between life satisfaction and interest and sympathy are 0.33 and 0.44 hence both are positively correlated which indicates hypothesis is accepted.

The mean score obtained for fear and anger are 8.9 and 10.03, their SD are 2.56 and 2.72 the r-value obtained between the fear and life satisfaction is -0.35 and r-value obtained between anger and life satisfaction is -0.43 both the fear, anger with life satisfaction is negatively correlated hence there is significant difference among fear and life satisfaction which indicates hypothesis is rejected.

In the case of both sad and jealousy which are the another dimensions of emotional competence, the mean score obtained are 9.56 and 9.8. the SD obtained are 3.06 and 3.51. the r values are -0.51 and -0.41. here hypothesis is rejected.

Most of the working women's are more happy, lovable, interest and sympathy it is mainly because of their job which provides security, salary, status, supervision, Promotion and various other benefits which can be lead to more satisfaction in their life.

If the working women's are increased showing the personality such as anger, fear, sad then there may be the chance of rejection from their family, community society and also it may be due to tight work schedule. So which can effect in their personal life as well in their job and thus satisfaction will be reduced.

From this result we can conclude that the happiness traits has a positive correlation on life satisfaction in women's. The study supported my hypothesis is done by Jewell and Kambhampati conducted a study on the role of personality in adults and Life satisfaction which concluded as there is positive effect on happiness and life satisfaction among women's

Table-VI Correlation between Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among Non-Working women's.

Correlation analysis shows the relationship between emotional competence and life satisfaction among non working women.

VARIABLES	MEAN	SD	r-value
HAPPINESS	8.01	1.93	0.05
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
LOVE	7.25	2.18	0.24
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
INTREST	6.53	2.38	0.25
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
SYMPATHY	6.63	1.99	0.20
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
FEAR	6.61	2.40	-0.27
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
ANGER	8.33	2.28	-0.20
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
SAD	8.4	1.99	-0.04
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	
JELOUSY	8.53	2.60	-0.08
LIFE SATISFACTION	62.81	7.31	

Table VI shows the correlation analysis between the dimensions of Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among Non-Working Women's.

The mean value and standard deviation of life satisfaction is 62.81 and 7.31.

In the case of emotional competence, the first dimension is happiness. The mean score and standard deviation (SD) of happiness is 8.01 and 1.93. The correlation value (r-value) between life satisfaction and happiness is 0.05 which indicates both are positively correlated hence hypothesis is accepted.

The second dimension of emotional competence is love, the mean score and SD obtained is 7.25 and 2.18. The r-value obtained between love and life satisfaction is 0.24 which results they are positively correlated hence hypothesis is accepted.

In the case of interest and sympathy, the mean score obtained are 6.53, 6.61 and their SD are 2.38 and 1.99. The r-value obtained between life satisfaction and interest, sympathy are 0.25 and 0.20 hence both are positively correlated which indicates hypothesis is accepted.

The mean score obtained for fear and anger are 6.61, 8.33 and their SD 2.40, 2.28 and the r-value obtained between fear, anger and life satisfaction is -0.27 and -0.20 both the life satisfaction and fear is negatively correlated hence there is significant difference among fear and life satisfaction which indicates hypothesis is rejected.

In the case of both sad and jealousy which are the another dimensions of emotional competence, the mean score obtained are 8.4 and 8.53 their SD obtained are 1.99 and 2.60. The r-values obtained is -0.04 and -0.08 which indicates there is significant difference between them. Here hypothesis is rejected.

Non- working women's are happy, lovable, interest and sympathy it is mainly because they are satisfied with their marital life and also familial relationship. If the Non-working women's are showing the personality such as anger, fear, sad it is mainly because of their rejection from family, over expectation about life, economic deficiency, job security problem etc. So which can effect in their personal life thus satisfaction will be reduced.

From this result we can conclude that the happiness traits has a positive correlation on life satisfaction in women's. The study supported my hypothesis is done by Jewell and Kambhampati conducted a study on the role of personality in adults and Life satisfaction which concluded as there is positive effect on happiness and life satisfaction among women's.

CHAPTER - V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The present study was undertaken to assess the life satisfaction and emotional competence of the working and nonworking women. The objective was to know the level of life satisfaction and emotional competence among working and nonworking women. It seems that, the working women have positive reaction towards lives and try to develop healthy patterns of adjustment and dealing with their lives, although the working women are aware of their right of autonomy and decision making that strengthen their behavior and empower their satisfaction. Besides all this doing job enables women to earn money and enjoy those luxuries of life that a non-working women can only dream of. When they go outside for the job they have to face different kind of circumstances that make them stronger and enable them to manage in bitter condition in a better way. Moreover, the working women are often seem to be emotionally competent than that of non-working women's.

RESUME OF THE STUDY

The present study compares the Emotional Competence and life Satisfaction among working and non-working women's.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To find out the level of Emotional Competence among working and non-working women's.
- To find out the level of Life Satisfaction among working and non-working women's.
- To find out the significant difference on Emotional Competence between working and non working women.
 - a) To find the significant difference on happiness among working and nonworking women's
 - b) To find the significant difference on love among working and nonworking women's
 - c) To find the significant difference on interest among working and nonworking women's
 - d) To find the significant difference on sympathy among working and non-working women's
 - e) To find the significant difference on fear among working and nonworking women's
 - f) To find the significant difference on anger among working and nonworking women's
 - g) To find the significant difference on sad among working and nonworking women's
 - h) To find the significant difference on jealousy among working and nonworking women's

- To find out the significant difference on Life Satisfaction between working and non working women.
- To find out significant relationship of Emotional Competence and Life Satisfaction among working women.
- To find out the significant relationship of Emotional Competence and life satisfaction among non working women.

METHODS

The methods of study is presented briefly below

Sample: 60 working women's and 60 non working women's from Malappuram and Alapuzha district in Kerala were considered as participants for the present study. Random sampling method is used for sample selection. The age range of participant is between 21 and 50 years.

Tools: The following tools were used to measure the variable of the present study

- Personal data sheet
- Emotional competence assessment scale (Paiva & Kumar, 2009)
- Life satisfaction scale (Sheron&Jayan 2009)

Procedure: The questionnaire were individually administered to the subjects and data were collected by giving necessary instructions to them and assuring the confidentiality of the procedure.

Statistical Analysis: The statistical analyses used are

- 1) Percentage Level
- 2) ANOVA
- 3) Correlation

MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

- 1) There is difference on the level of Emotional Competence among working and non-working women's
- 2) There is difference on the level of Life Satisfaction among working and non-working women's.
- 3) There is significant difference on Emotional Competence between working and non working women.
 - There is significant difference on happiness among working and nonworking women's
 - There is significant difference on love among working and nonworking women's
 - There is no significant difference on interest among working and nonworking women's
 - There is significant difference on sympathy among working and

nonworking women's

- There is significant difference on fear among working and nonworking women's
 - There is significant difference on anger among working and nonworking women's
 - There is no significant difference on sad among working and nonworking women's
 - There is no significant difference on jealousy among working and non working women's
- 4) There is no significant difference on life satisfaction between working and non working women's.
- 5) There is significant relationship between emotional competence and life satisfaction among working women.
- 6) There is significant relationship between emotional competence and life satisfaction among non working women.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FURTHER STUDIES

Emotional competence is a very essential factor for the successful life of a person, and determines the quality of life. On the basis the study give more focus and care to non working women to increase their satisfaction.

LIMITATIONS

- The sample size of the present study is small.
- The study can further include more than two variables.
- Sample was collected only from Malappuram district in Kerala.
- Took much more time for manual for Life satisfaction.
- There was no enough time for data collection.

SUGGESTIONS

- Gender difference and age difference also be included in the study.
- Study can be qualitative.

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APPENDIX**PERSONAL DATA SHEET**

NAME :
 AGE :
 PLACE :
 EDUCATIONAL :
 QUALIFICATION :
 OCCUPATION : WORKING/NOT WORKING
 JOB CATEGORY :
 MARITAL STATUS : MARRIED/UNMARRIED

EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE ASSESSMENT SCALE (ECAS)**INSTRUCTIONS:****Dear respondent,**

1. This scale aims to assess your level of emotional competence.
2. Each statement in this scale set against four responses please select one of the best suits you.
3. Please give your response to all statements without fear.
4. Your response will be used only for research purpose and kept in confidential.

1. Always 2. Sometimes 3. Rarely 4. Never

		1	2	3	4
1	After succeed, I express my happiness that won't hurt losers.				
2	After seeing my friend in a long period, I express my happiness according to the environment.				
3	After achieving my goal and getting respect or appreciation from other, I act politely.				
4	If my team mates win the game, I won't discourage or use abusive words against the opponent team.				
5	Without any partiality I love my family members.				
6	I behave politely with patients and won't verbally hurt them.				
7	Without any expectations I shower my love towards friends.				
8	Without self wish I act for the development of others.				
9	I won't do the activities interestingly that result bad thing to others.				
10	I am Interesting to remove the social partiality and misconceptions.				

11	I interested to wear dress that won't affect others.				
12	I interested to do the work for the social development.				
13	After identifying disabled, I try to help them best.				
14	I help those who lost their basic goods in the disaster.				
15	I help mentally disabled and socially deprived individual in kind way.				
16	I try to protect the forest because pros and cons of deforestation to the people.				
17	Without fear I help road accident met people.				
18	I won't develop un wanted fear among others.				
19	I won't accept and follow the words of the social thief.				
20	I involve the creative activities without fear.				
21	When human rights are overcooked I express my anger.				
22	I won't express anger that mentally hurt others.				
23	I won't use unwanted abusive words when face excessive anger.				
24	I try to involve the activities that are related to control my anger.				
25	When I see the social disparities I won't get angry but I try to search the solution to solve that problems.				
26	There is no use of sadness so, I won't feel sad.				
27	I won't feel sad for failure but I try to search the way to succeed.				
28	I won't feel inferior for present skill but I try to develop my skills.				
29	I use unnecessary gossip as a motivating stone for my development.				
30	When I Struggle to achieve my goal, I won't feel sad but try succeed in my goal.				
31	When my friend succeed in a competition I won't get jealous but congratulate him her.				
32	I won't get jealous of others development but I concentrate on my personal development.				
33	Due to jealous, I won't do the activities that hurt others.				
34	I try to help others for their development without jealous.				

35	I won't name other in difficult situation due to jealous.				

LIFE SATISFACTION INVENTORY

Sheron.K.P And Dr.C.Jayan

Department Of Psychology

University Of Calicut

There are 20 statements given below on Life Satisfaction Scale. Read carefully each statements and mark which level is more appropriate on the basis of your life. All information's are kept confidential.

Statements of life satisfaction.		In my life I am satisfied in these level 1- Highly rejected 2- Rejected 3- Sometime 4- Accepted 5- Highly accepted
1.	I have financial security.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	I have somewhat good level of health.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	I have higher level of efficiency to do work in various fields.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	High level of society and also I/we involved in social responsibilities.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	Achieved many meaningful goals in my life.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	Achieved many goals which society defines success.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	High level of self esteem.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	Controlled by higher level people. Stabilized people select their fate.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	Self confident. Stabilized people select their goals.	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Stabilized people find happiness by debating with other people.	1 2 3 4 5
11.	I have stable goals and expectations in my life.	1 2 3 4 5.
12.	While moving to the success found many obstacles even though I win at last.	1 2 3 4 5
13.	Daily find smaller challenges, then will lead to success.	1 2 3 4 5
14.	Can be able to adapt and interact based on different situation.	1 2 3 4 5
15.	Developing pro-social behavior within the society and there by reach confident level.	1 2 3 4 5
16.	Select adventure task and also opted energetic relaxation methods.	1 2 3 4 5

17.	Believing societal support and which can lead to success.	1 2 3 4 5
18.	I felt too stress when thinking about future activities.	1 2 3 4 5
19.	have proper goals and directions in my life.	1 2 3 4 5
20.	I felt like achieved lots of goal.	1 2 3 4 5

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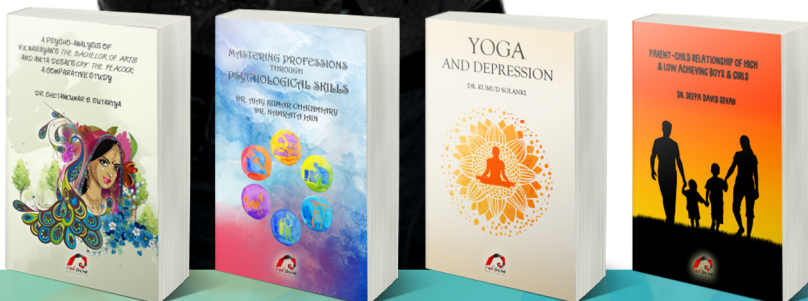
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